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ABSTRACT

Soviet adult education has a fourfold purpose. Adult education is a channel by which adults complete their secondary education, a means to upgrade occupational skills, a means of obtaining the skills needed to make a career change, and a vehicle for eliminating class distinctions. Forty-five percent of all participants in Soviet adult education are over 35 years of age (full-time education is restricted to those under the age of 30). Correspondence courses are the most popular form of adult education. Other popular programs are the people's universities (which are similar to Western junior colleges), the Likbeze (a literacy program that provides literacy courses targeted toward adults and produces educational literature), on-the-job training, and self-education. The predominant form of adult education is political instruction, with courses arranged by employers and local houses and clubs of political education. Although not legislatively required, adult education is avidly encouraged by the Soviet government. Major issues affecting Soviet adult education are the conflict between creativity and tradition, the scarcity of labor resources, outside threats of capitalism, and inadequate school administration. Twenty-one references are listed. (MN)

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ADULT EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET UNION

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Introduction

Over the years the shadow of the Iron Curtain has blurred Western perspective of Soviet education. Limited communication resulted in conjecture that the bulk of Soviet education was propaganda and that adult education was unnecessary--adults had orders to follow rather than theories and principles. Moreover, the scant quantity of literature had a tendency to be biased; Western writers painted a picture of the "outlaw in red" brainwashing its citizens in the classroom. Soviet writers, on the other hand, used carefully chosen terms to avoid party retribution.

Today, in the less biased/more open atmosphere made possible by Glasnost, non-Soviet nations are able to examine Soviet education to overcome stereotypes and build upon one another's knowledge and experience. To this end, the structure of Soviet formal education and the purpose and forms of adult education will be examined. Finally, a synthesis and evaluation of available literature to determine factors influencing adult education in the Soviet Union will be addressed.

Philosophy of Soviet Education

Not unlike any other society, the Soviet Union has its own values, culture, and goals that it wants to

instill in its youth. However, in Soviet society the education system is used as a vehicle to inculcate within its people loyalty, dedication, and devotion to the cause of creating a Communist world view, to prepare workers to be a viable working and contributing part of society, and to develop people capable of being "Builders of Communism" (Sorrentino and Curcio, 1986; O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). Education is structured so as to attain the important goals of communism: social homogeneity, high labor productivity, and political commitment (Tomiak, 1986). For this system to be effective, the schools and curriculum have remained exceptionally centralized and rigid.

Vocational education. The basis of Soviet education is built on Communism and the teachings of Marx and Lenin. Following is a poem about Lenin; it is used to encourage young learners to follow Lenin's teachings and to be inspired by him.

We stand before a portrait
Upon the schoolroom wall
We see the face of Lenin
So known and loved by all.

We often bring him flowers
And twine them round the frame
We children honour deeply
His ever cherished name.

We promise 'we shall study
To master all you taught'
And say 'we're always ready
In lessons, work and sport'
(Tashkent, 1977, p. 25)

A love of work ethic is instilled in citizens from the time they are very young children--the worthy citizen loves his own work and always aspires to do it to the best of his ability and it is through his attitude towards work that a man is ultimately judged (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). In addition, "Communism is seen as being attainable only through the establishment of a strong industrial state" (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986, p. 106).

For these reasons--moral work values and a strong industrial nation--vocational education plays a very significant role in compulsory education, higher education, and work training in the Soviet Union. There are three basic goals of Soviet vocational education which are evident at all levels of education: 1.) moral education in the desired attitudes towards work; 2.) training in practical work skills and habits; 3.) vocational guidance (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

The instilling of moral values with respect to work begins at a very young age. Marxist principles are the

foundation for building positive attitudes toward work, a commitment to quality, and respect for all types of work (Sorrentino and Curcio, 1986). The training in practical work skills is also begun at a young age along with general education courses. Vocational guidance becomes evident in the later years of secondary schooling. The objective is much more to encourage and guide students into specializations and occupations for which there is a local or general need rather than to analyze the aptitudes and interests of the student and fitting these to a profession.

Soviet education on all levels and in all forms has a definite vocational flair. This process does not end with formal schooling but continues throughout the adult's working life. The aim of this process of lifelong education is to produce both a qualified worker as well as a properly functioning, effective citizen of the Soviet state (Kuebart, 1986). "The training in work skills and the socialization in the moral values inherent in Communist ideology are inseparably intertwined in the (educational) process" (Kuebart, 1986, p. 138).

Atheistic education. To be an upstanding Communist citizen, a person must be an atheist. "Religious faith is contrary to the materialistic doctrines of Marxism, and Communists claim that churches have always supported the elite classes that gain and sustain their power and wealth through the exploitation of the worker" (Long, 1986). This ideology is incorporated into many different courses, especially the sciences, throughout a child's education.

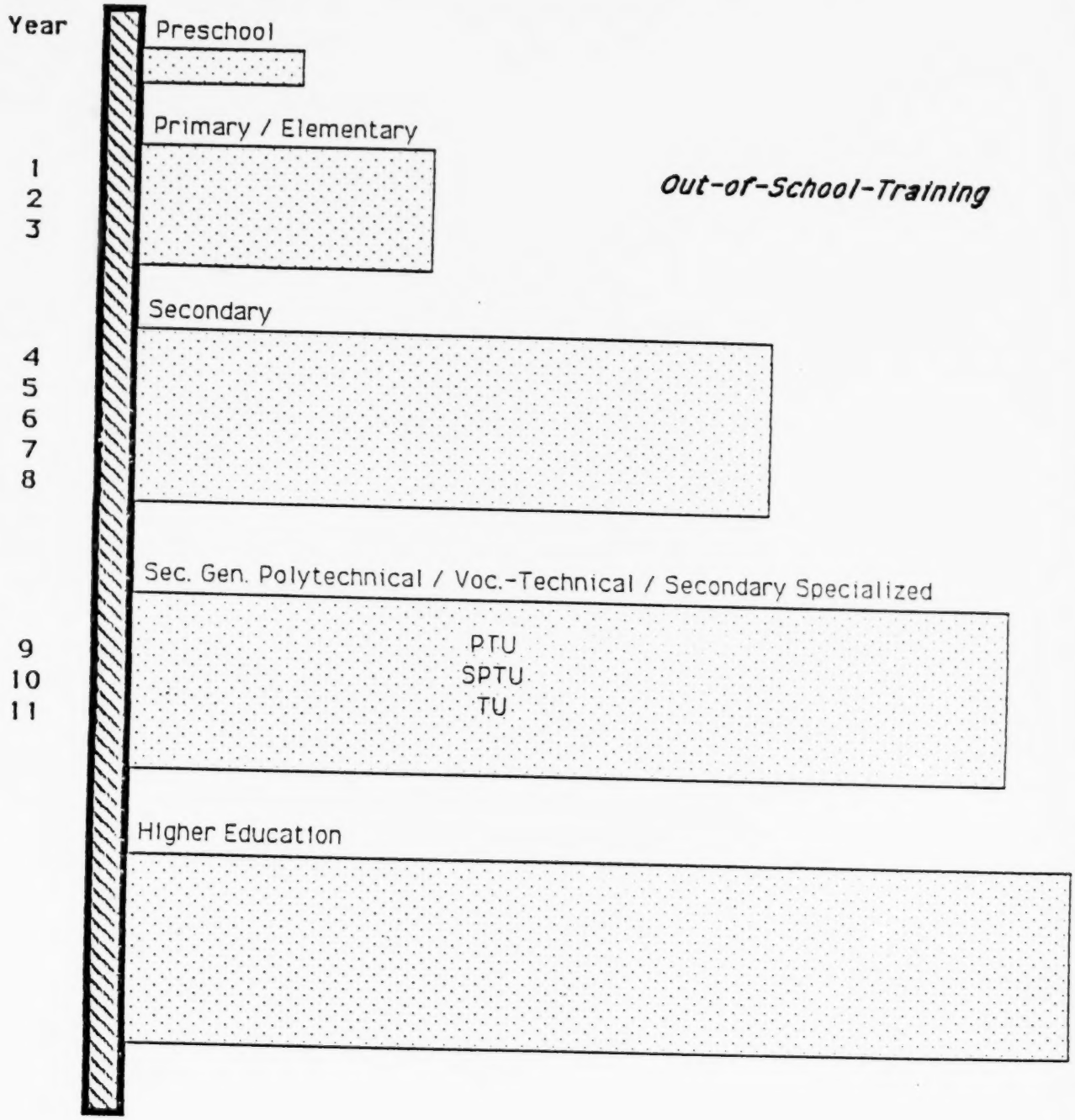
Political education. For most students political education is included in many classes throughout their period of study (Morison, 1983). These courses include: dialectical and historical materialism, scientific atheism, history of the CPSU (Communist Party of the Soviet Union), the development of capitalism and socialism according to the principles of Marxism-Leninism" (Morison, 1983).

Education Structure

Compulsory education is for 11 years; it is free of charge. The Soviet Union is attempting to provide equal educational opportunity for everyone. (See Figure A). There is a universal curriculum for all students up

FIGURE A

Labor Training at the Different Stages of the Contemporary Educational Process



through the 8th level. The classes meet 6 days a week, 35 to 36 weeks a year.

As visitors to several schools in the U.S.S.R., Davis and Romberg (1986) observed that children are very polite and attentive in the classroom; the rooms are very orderly. All students wear uniforms. However, the atmosphere in the classroom is warm and caring. It is known that Russian adults give high priority and a deep, warm affection to children.

Pre-school upbringing. Education at this stage can take place at home or within a structured kindergarten. Pre-school in a nursery is not compulsory, nor is it free. Fees are based on parents' ability to pay to make it accessible to more people. It is more difficult to control pre-school training at home, but the state still tries to guide the parents to teach the children the same work values they would learn at a structured institution. "Television programs for parents suggest the need for and ways of teaching youngsters a love of work" (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). Children's programs demonstrate modelling skills or show adults doing different jobs stressing the social significance of even the most humble work (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). Carrying

the same message are books and magazines for parents and children.

At a kindergarten it is much easier for the state to organize labor training. Many learning sessions deal with practical work skills, such as handicrafts and gardening. Children are also taught about the jobs of adults, particularly the ones in their local area. The aim of a nursery school is to develop in the child feelings of duty and responsibility for the work of the collective and love of work (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

Elementary level. Children start this level at six years of age. The labor training begun at kindergarten is continued. The work activities may include: cutting paper, making clay and paper-mache' models, looking after plants, arranging and tidying the classroom, and doing other light maintenance chores (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). The aim at this level is to encourage the children to work in groups, do a task to the best of their ability, and to help each other.

Secondary level. The secondary classes begin at the fourth or fifth year. There is a continued objective of providing students with skills which will be directly useful to society. Labor training is

continued in school workshops using real materials and simple tools. Boys and girls are often separated for their labor training courses with the traditional guiding of boys into metalwork and girls into sewing. The subjects that students must take in the general secondary level include: Russian language, world literature, world history, social sciences, natural history, geography, biology, physics, astronomy, drawing, chemistry, English, other foreign languages, physical culture, mathematics, and labor training (Davis and Romberg, 1986). It is at this level that serious vocational guidance begins--guiding a pupil into an occupation where there is a need as the marketplace dictates.

It is after the 8th or 9th level that students must make a decision to go to a vocational/technical school or complete their 11 years in general secondary school. At the present time Russia is making some structural changes in their education system. In 1985 compulsory education was changed from 10 years to 11 years, but it was not made clear how elementary, secondary, or vocational schools were affected. There is also some speculation that the various choices (to be discussed)

for completing secondary education may change in the near future.

Secondary general polytechnical. There is a great amount of vocational training and guidance at this level of education. Students take fieldtrips to local work places to talk with the workers and see the workplace. They also gain practical work experience while working at a local factory, building site, field, or school workshop or inter-school production combine. These combines consist of a range of workshops or laboratories brought in by local enterprises. The businesses send workers to act as instructors in the combines. A work training element is even incorporated into all general education courses. The student finishes with a completed eleven-year education.

Vocational/technical schools. The current trend in the Soviet Union is to provide work training for even the most elementary job in a structured institution rather than on the job. Workers trained at a technical institute tend to proceed through the working grades faster than those trained on the job (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

There are three different kinds of technical schools, each with varying requirements and programs. Students are given certain material incentives to attend these schools. Payment is given for any work in the base enterprise; pupils are provided a place to stay, food, and clothing. However, in return, the student is expected to stay in that job three years after graduation (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

The first school is a technical-trade school or PTU. These schools provide students with basic work training but no general education. Many pupils attending a PTU are working; many evening and shift courses are offered so that workers can study at times compatible with their work shifts. The lengths of these courses vary from 7 months to 20 months and prerequisite requirements vary from a full 11-year education to only 8 years of general education (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

The second type of vocational school is a secondary technical-trade school (SPTU). Work training is provided along with the final years of compulsory general education. This type of school requires only eight years of general education for admission. Projections for 1990 indicate this type of school to be

the largest growing and have the largest percentage of eighth-grade leavers at 51.2 percent (Kuebart, 1986).

The third kind of vocational school is a technical school. These institutions offer only full-time courses that last usually from a year to 18 months and are open only to pupils who have completed 11 years of secondary schooling (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

Secondary specialized colleges. The technical-trade schools just outlined are organized and controlled by the State Committee on Vocational and Technical Education. Secondary specialized colleges, however, are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Education (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). The main difference between the trade schools (or technicums) and colleges (uchilishcha) is the specialization areas offered. Technicums train personnel for industry, agriculture, construction, and transport; whereas, the colleges mainly train specialists in health, education, and culture (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). Some of the programs require eight years of completed education for admission, others require 11 years. Applicants are accepted on the basis of an entrance exam, which is also unlike the trade schools; trade schools accept students

based on grades in previous levels. Anyone who has had eight years of schooling may apply to an evening or correspondence course at a specialized college, but there is an age limit of 30 placed on applicants to full-time courses (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

Out-of-school education. What the young student does outside of the classroom is also guided by the Soviet educator; spare time is not considered purely recreational. Extracurricular activities, which take the form of youth groups, are organized through the Ministry of Education. Their main purpose is to contribute to the moral development of children. "These groups are the Octoberists, ages 7-10; Pioneers, ages 10-15; and the Komsomol, for students over 15" (Popkewitz and Tabachnick, 1986). Many times these clubs or groups meet after school to continue the vocational guidance started in school. Some of the special interest clubs include chess, physics, drama, art, sports, ballet, or music. There are clubs for students with particular technical, botanical, or zoological interests. It is important to remember that the objective of these activities is to reinforce the teachings of the school in terms of work values,

habits, and collectiveness. These groups and organizations continue to increase and improve in an attempt to restrict young people's exposure to potentially different attitudes towards work which they might come across at home or on the street (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

Higher education. It is the aim of the higher education system to change the social structure in the direction of more social homogeneity--to bring forth the particular social stratum of 'intelligentsia' (Glowka, 1986). This system seems to be accomplishing its objective of a greater social equality. The proportion of individuals with higher education has been continually rising, while those with lower educational qualifications have been decreasing in recent years (Glowka, 1986).

Practical work makes up a major part of the curriculum of any course. So vocational education plays a part even in higher education. These courses usually last five years. Any Soviet citizen who completes at least 11 years of school is eligible for admission to higher education. There are, however, competitive examinations for admission to these programs.

In an attempt to help those who have left school some time before, many institutes have opened preparatory departments to give students' practical knowledge a stronger educational basis. These departments have not been as successful as hoped (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). These students still tend to have a lower success rate in their courses than do students who have come directly from secondary school.

There is less competition for entry to evening or correspondence departments of higher education, and many working students take advantage of these opportunities for part-time study. In 1980 out of 5,186,000 students in higher education, 13 percent were in evening departments and 31 percent were in correspondence departments (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

Adult Education

Purpose of adult education. Soviet adult education has a fourfold purpose. Primarily, adult education is a channel by which adults complete their secondary education. This has been a particular necessity in rural areas where young people abandon academics to maintain family farms (Kondavov, 1988). However, some Soviet administrators argue that these numbers are

dropping since new legislation mandates attendance through the complete secondary school years (Nossen, 1984).

Secondly, Soviet adult education is a means to upgrade occupational skills. The 17th CPSU Congress placed a particular emphasis on this purpose recognizing the rapidly changing nature of technology (Kondavov, 1988).

One might not expect the average Russian to control his/her own career under a traditionally regimented system. Yet career changes are the third purpose of Soviet adult education. In 1980, 42 million adults learned a new occupation through courses offered at businesses and four million through correspondence courses and evening classes offered at universities and technical institutes (Darinskii, 1984).

Finally, the ultimate purpose of Soviet adult education is to eliminate class distinctions (Yazykova, 1983). This is in keeping with the Marxist view that all individuals contribute to society by being collectively productive. Similarly, establishment of a classless society "...within the socialist framework presupposes that in time everyone--not just

intellectuals--will become intellectual" (Kondavov, 1988).

Background. The emphasis on adult education is as recent as the 26th CPSU Congress which initiated legislation mandating business and industry to provide facilities for on-the-job training and skill advancement. Their intent was to establish a structured system which would educate the individual from cradle to grave.

Components of this lifelong education system include:

- Preschool education
- Daytime secondary and higher education
- Secondary and higher education for the employed (evening and distance schools)
- Vocational training and retraining
- Clubs involved in general education
- Educational mass media
- Self-education (Yazykova, 1983)

Facts about adult education. Forty-five percent of adult education participants are over thirty-five years old (Nossen, 1984). This is significant since full-time education is restricted to those under thirty. In

education is restricted to those under thirty. In addition, students must complete eight years of secondary education before they are eligible for evening or correspondence courses. Those who do not qualify may take special courses offered by the government, on the job, or utilize self-instructional materials.

Most adult schools have their own building in the vicinity of their related industry rather than on a central campus. Classes are team-taught by an academician and a skilled worker thereby providing a theoretical and pragmatic viewpoint simultaneously (Darinskii, 1984). This parallels the Marxist view that all education should be closely related to work, based on science and dialectical philosophy (Onushkin, 1978).

Furthermore, adult education teachers are required to be certified every five years. Therefore they participate in "night education" which focuses on adult learning theory and adult psychology (Nossen, 1984; Dobson, 1987).

Forms of Adult Education

Correspondence courses. Correspondence courses are the most popular form of adult education. Structurally similar to Western correspondence courses, they are

available at the participant's leisure. In 1981, 1,625,000 participated in courses on a higher education level, and in 1982, 1,210,000 on a secondary level (Nossen, 1984). The popularity of the courses is due in part to their accessibility and flexibility.

People's Universities. People's Universities are similar to Western junior colleges or campus activities programs. They meet in facilities belonging to other institutions. Their assets include a flexible organizational structure, a variety of objectives, and broad subject matter (Darinskii, 1984). Consequently, they cater to students with an array of educational needs. In 1980 there were 47,500 People's Universities enrolling 13.8 million students (Darinskii, 1984). Like their Western counterparts they employ permanent salaried staff. Nevertheless, they adhere to the universal curriculum provided by the State.

Special programs - the Likbeze. The name Likbeze is a Russian acronym meaning "Let's Eliminate Illiteracy," (Nossen, 1984). Their services include literacy courses targeting adults and production of educational literature. In addition, Likbezes provide incentives to their participants. These include

priority grain milling, reduced workdays with full pay, and eligibility for Likbeze stipends.

On-the-job training. Employers are required to maintain facilities for on-the-job training. This training is vital to bridging the gap between technology learned at school and that which is actually in use. Courses are conducted by skilled workers from the worksite and are frequently coordinated by trade unions (Vazakova, 1983). Those completing on-the-job training receive mastery certification. Nonetheless, the current trend is to provide work training at institutions rather than on the job (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

Self-education. The "renaissance comrade" not only participates in formal education but is dedicated to the lifelong pursuit of self-education. The value placed on self-education by Soviet administrators permeates the literature and is buttressed by an abundance of self-educational tools.

Instructional television offers both occupational skills and self-help programs. An example of such programs is the previously mentioned course on parenting and instilling work values in children. Educational cinema is another approach to film media (Yazykova,

1983). In this case, instructional films are presented in movie theatres. They contain similar content to educational TV but are available to specialized industrial locations.

Furthermore, trade unions publish literature available for self-education. In 1981 the trade unions circulated over ten newspapers and 26 periodicals grouped by trade with a circulation of over 30 million (Yazykova, 1983). Moreover, union books and brochures reached a circulation of over 25 million (Yazykova, 1983).

There is a current push to establish an educational focus within social circles as well. Soviets refer to such structured leisure as "social pedagogies" (Yazykova, 1983). They view pedagogies as a means to help people enhance the quality of their life by "becoming actively involved in the process of life," and developing their personalities (Yazykova, 1983, p. 10).

Adult political education. The predominant form of adult education is political instruction. This has been in existence since the 1930s. In 1986 there were 60 million participants (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986). The format includes courses, seminars, and discussion

groups. These courses are arranged by employers, and local "Houses and Clubs of Political Education" (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986, p. 167). They are taught by propagandists, or volunteer activists, who teach to fulfill a commitment to the political party. They in turn study in higher level courses that emphasize literature by Marx and Lenin. In 1986 there were 2.5 million propagandists, which included almost all party members (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986).

The objective of these courses is to teach Communist ideology and "ways of using theory to illuminate the political tasks of the moment as the party sees them" (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986, p. 168). Courses are tailored to the particular job applications of those who attend. For instance, a group of plant managers might meet and discuss how Communism influences their decision making and management. A group of engineers might meet to discuss Communism and its role in engineering (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986). Course content is further delineated according to education, occupation, and political rank of the listeners (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986).

The problem with this system is that courses are losing their emphasis on party doctrine to more practical issues. Much of the propaganda is outdated and relies heavily on misrepresentation. With the advancing educational level of the people and the increased exposure to the West, participants are questioning the credibility of doctrinal instruction (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986).

Government Incentives

Although adult education is not legislatively required by the Soviet Union, it is passionately encouraged. Accordingly, the government sponsors a variety of incentives to participants.

One incentive is flexible class time. The adult student can attend courses for either 28 or 36 weeks, depending upon the institution offering the course (Darinskii, 1984). Also, if attending courses five evenings a week is a strain, the student may couple traditional lecture courses with correspondence. The student may then attend class once a week and complete the correspondence work at his/her leisure. Then the student may prepare for class by taking the class day off with pay (Nossen, 1984).

There is even greater incentive for those who have returned to finish complete and incomplete secondary school. These students each receive a half day off per week with pay to study. When students are preparing to take their incomplete secondary exams, they are given eight paid days. Those preparing for their complete secondary exams receive twenty paid days of vacation (Darinskii, 1984).

Influences on Adult Education

Technological revolution. The nature of technological advances in the world is changing the requirements of certain jobs, doing away with some jobs, and creating others; the Soviet Union is no exception. Their fast changing marketplace needs workers who are flexible enough to change specializations as circumstances necessitate. Workers at all levels need to be trained in more than one specialization; they need to be flexible, innovative thinkers if the Russian economy is going to benefit from the technological revolution and compete in world markets. Planners are trying to remedy this problem by providing improved labor training programs in business and industry (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986).

In addition, often the specialties offered in higher education do not match enterprises' needs. As previously stated, the education system is highly regimented with a universal curriculum. Student enrollments are planned by Central Ministries based upon manpower requirement projections derived from estimates from industries (Nossen, 1984). By the time this information filters through the system and the structure is adjusted, these figures are often obsolete. This phenomena is responsible for the glut of engineers Russia is currently experiencing. Consequently, a number of engineers are performing technician's jobs--jobs for which they are grossly over qualified (Nossen, 1984).

Conflict between creativity and tradition. The schools need to provide students with the necessary technical background and creative thought processes vital to workers striving to be productive through the stages of technological development. Herein lies the problem: Traditionally, the curriculum in the Soviet Union has been very structured utilizing rote memorization as the main learning tool. Also, the idea of collectiveness--working for the good of the group--

has been encouraged since nursery school. Some education planners, however, have recognized that the rote approach and lack of imagination in the classroom have resulted in a shortage of creative, innovative workers (Sorrentino and Curcio, 1986).

Again, improved training programs are needed for workers already on the job. Also, an increased amount of independent and creative thinking should be encouraged in the classroom. Students need to be educated in a manner so that they can be proactive learners--able to acquire knowledge necessary to adapt to a rapidly changing work environment.

Labor as a scarce resource. Labor is not plentiful; there are more jobs than people. This results in new problems confronting the Soviet economy. Turnover is very high as people move from factory to factory looking for the most desirable position. People are not as concerned with losing their jobs, so quality decreases while discipline problems increase (O'Dell, 1983 and 1986). This scenario presents major problems when trying to establish a strong industrial state. Adult education could play an important part in

strengthening moral work values in workers to contribute to society's good.

Outside threat of capitalism. Recently, there has been an increased amount of communication with non-Soviet countries. People in the Soviet Union, especially young people, are becoming aware of how people live in other countries; they are beginning to question the dictates of "the system" and want some of the things a capitalistic society can offer (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986). What is needed is increased education for parents to further instill in young people and children the benefits of a socialist society and disadvantages of capitalism. Also, there needs to be increased efforts in adult political education to enhance party credibility by updating outdated curricula with a more rational approach citing credible sources and figures.

Personal aspirations vs. societal intentions. There is conflict between what young people want for themselves and what the Communist party dictates. The stress is between those who see the aim of education as producing "good" individuals working together to produce a healthy society and others who see the aim as raising

the standard of living of individuals, thereby, raising the level of society. Many young workers are unhappy with their chosen professions, so they return to school for retraining. There need to be increased efforts in educating parents and teachers to train children, and again, more widespread political education.

There is a similar conflict related to occupational specialties. When a student selects a specialty, s/he understands that s/he will be required to work in a government position in that field for three years. The rationale is that this partially recoups the cost of government paid education, while giving the student experience. Nevertheless, there has been an alarming rise in the number of graduates not reporting to their work assignment, particularly to undesirable positions and to those in rural areas (Nossen, 1984).

Under the current system a Soviet student should know what career s/he aspires to by age 16. Counselors assist students in arriving at this decision. By forcing decisions early in a student's life, the government seeks to produce graduates with direction in their lives. Ideally, the students will be socially productivity sooner. However, the government may now

be suffering repercussions from students whose interests have changed over the year, or who made quick naive choices. This creates an opportunity for retraining on the job or in a specialized technical institute.

Inadequate school administration. The Soviet education system is directed by one centrally located ministry. Due to the accelerating socioeconomic and technological development of the Soviet Union and increased communication with other countries, changes are taking place quickly. It is difficult keep up with all the changes that have an effect on education because the country and its corresponding administrative structure is so large and diverse. It takes a longer time for effects to "trickle down."

Furthermore, administrators need to be trained in how to be effective decision makers and thinkers; for so long decisions were made for them. Yet with Glasnost, administrators are being granted more freedom to evaluate their system and make personal contributions. Similarly, provisions should be made for improvements in training specialists who teach at the higher and secondary education levels. Only when teachers

themselves are current can they educate students in the latest technological developments.

Glasnost. Again, the Soviet Union is faced with the threat of outside influence. The population is being exposed to the non-Soviet world through radio, television, tourists, and travel abroad. This has enabled citizens to make independent judgments about their Soviet world and possibly even question the party doctrine and the rigid system. Therefore, to make adult political education more credible and authoritative the party must adapt their education approach to the higher levels of knowledge among the population and also to every member of the labor force (Barghoorn and Remington, 1986).

Finally, Glasnost is opening avenues of more candid evaluation of the current adult education system. Kondavov (1988), a Soviet professor, makes the following observation about the current state of adult education, "At the present time, this educational subsystem also has a lot of loose ends." While this report lacks specificity, it is a testimony to Glasnost.

Conclusion

The Soviet Union, like the United States, is constantly evaluating and striving to improve its educational system. Its recent efforts in developing general and adult education demonstrate its commitment to be technologically competitive while adapting to contemporary values.

Yet in spite of the Soviets Union's efforts to change, it will be a long time before these changes are evident. Their progress will be under the world's watchful eye for many years to come.

Nevertheless, in the face of these changes, the foundation of Soviet philosophy remains steadfast:

"Under socialism, the goal of education has been and still is the comprehensive development of the personality, the wholly worthwhile preparation of the individual to take up the role of a worker in social production" (Bestuzhev-Lada, 1988, p. 7).

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